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Evaluation of eco-toxicological effects of the parasiticide moxidectin in comparison to ivermectin in 11 species of dung flies

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Toxicological Tests of the Livestock Parasiticide Moxidectin in Comparison to
Ivermectin using Various Dung Flies

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Abstract — A standardized bioassay previously developed with ivermectin for the yellow dung fly (*Scathophagidae*) and the face fly (*Muscidae*) was applied to test the response of 11 dung fly species to the presumably less toxic parasiticide moxidectin. The results were compared to existing data for the same species tested with ivermectin. Estimated lethal effect concentrations LC50 at which 50% of the flies died ranged more than tenfold from 0.012 mg moxidectin / kg fresh dung for *Sepsis neocynipsea* (Sepsidae) to 0.140 mg moxidectin / kg fresh dung for the house fly *Musca domestica* (Muscidae). In most species we additionally revealed sub-lethal effects at lower moxidectin concentrations in terms of retarded development and reduced body size. Mortality thresholds were about ten times higher for moxidectin than for ivermectin, hence moxidectin is indeed less toxic than ivermectin to the tested species. Crucially, we obtained strong correlations among the 11 tested fly species in both lethal and sub-lethal responses to the two substances, such that species relatively sensitive to ivermectin were also relatively sensitive to moxidectin. Such correlations are unsurprising because the two substances are structurally related, and function in the same manner by disturbing ion channel transport. Methodologically speaking, all species used proved suitable for the toxicological testing of parasitocides. Particularly interesting in this context would be comparisons in future studies with substances that feature entirely different modes of action. The existing OECD guideline fly test guideline could be modified in order to allow sepsid testing as well.

Keywords — Dung community, Insect, *Musca*, *Scathophaga*, Toxicological test, Sepsidae.

51 *Introduction*

52 Manufacturers of veterinary pharmaceuticals are required to conduct
53 environmental risk assessment studies as part of the registration process to
54 demonstrate the quality, safety and efficacy of any new products. The Veterinary
55 International Co-operation on Harmonization (VICH) coordinates such registration
56 regulations in various industrialized countries (VICH, 2004). Over the past decade,
57 the SETAC (Society for Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry) advisory group
58 DOTTS (Dung Organism Toxicity Testing Standardization) has been active in
59 developing guidelines for testing for residues of veterinary pharmaceuticals excreted
60 in the dung of treated livestock. Over the years, many laboratory tests and field
61 studies have revealed that typically some proportion of dung dwellers, primarily
62 beetles and flies, are negatively affected by such pharmaceutical residues (e.g. Wall
63 and Strong, 1987), ultimately impeding their important ecosystem function of
64 breaking down the dung (reviewed by Floate et al., 2005; Jochmann et al., 2011).
65 Such unintended, non-target effects have raised concerns, to the extent that
66 regulators now mandate standardized toxicological tests of dung dwelling organisms
67 (VICH, 2004). As a result of the DOTTS activities, several studies appeared recently
68 demonstrating the feasibility and reliability of such laboratory tests, using two flies
69 (the yellow dung fly, *Scathophaga stercoraria* L. (Diptera: Scathophagidae), and the
70 face fly *Musca autumnalis* L. (Diptera: Muscidae)) (Römbke et al., 2009, 2010)) as
71 test species, and ivermectin, the oldest and still most commonly used parasiticide
72 (Ōmura, 2008), as reference substance. These fly tests have already been validated
73 and standardized (OECD, 2008; OECD, 2005).

74 It should be obvious that no single test species can possibly capture, and
75 hence typify, the diversity of sensitivities to any particular toxic substance. Moreover,

worldwide standards necessarily require use of several test species representing different taxonomic groups (e.g. beetles vs. flies) and biogeographic regions of the world (e.g. tropics vs. temperate zones).

It is equally clear that tests of one particular substance, such as e.g. ivermectin, likely do not reveal the range of possible responses of any single species to all available livestock medications, even if belonging to structurally related classes (avermectins and milbemycins, in this case). In addition to testing several species, it is therefore imperative to also test several different substances if we want to understand the general impact such pharmaceutical residues have on natural communities. If two pharmaceuticals are chemically related and belong to closely related substance classes, as is the case for ivermectin and moxidectin (Fig. 1 + 2), and if they even have the same functional mechanism – both substances disturb ion transport through cell walls by binding to ion channels (Lumaret et al., 2012; Ōmura, 2002) – a similar sensitivity of organisms to both pharmaceuticals might be expected.

FIGURE 1 + 2

Thus, we here test the response of a total of 11 fly species (Diptera), primarily Sepsidae, that regularly breed in cattle dung to moxidectin, following the methods and standards developed with ivermectin for yellow dung flies (Scathophagidae) and face flies (Muscidae) (Römbke et al., 2009, 2010). Sepsid flies are distributed worldwide (Blume, 1985; Pont and Meier, 2002), small, locally common, and easy to rear in large groups (not unlike *Drosophila*) on cattle dung; they have short generation times of ca. 2 weeks (e.g. Puniamoorthy et al., 2012). These properties make them ideal test species for ecotoxicology. Moxidectin is chemically related to ivermectin, but is believed to have relatively low toxicity (Doherty et al., 1994; Floate et al. 2001; Lumaret et al., 2012; Ōmura, 2002; Wardhaugh et al., 1996). In addition

to mortality effects in terms of the lethal effect concentration at which 50% of the individuals die (LC50), we assess non-lethal effects on growth rate, development time and body size, which previous studies revealed to be present, interesting and relevant for the natural situation (Jochmann et al., 2011; Römbke et al., 2009; but see Römbke et al., 2010). We compare the moxidectin responses to previously obtained (and largely published) data for the same fly species in response to ivermectin (Römbke et al., 2009; Römbke et al., 2010).

1. Material and methods

We generally followed the methods and standards specified in Römbke et al. (2009, 2010; OECD, 2008). All moxidectin tests were performed over several months in 2010 in our laboratory in Zürich. Dung was spiked with technical moxidectin (CAS No. 113507-06-5) supplied by Fort Dodge Animal Health (Monmouth Junction, NJ, USA). The substance was first dissolved in acetone to obtain the desired concentrations by serial dilution. The solution was then thoroughly mixed into cattle dung and kept overnight at room temperature to allow for evaporation of the solvent. A blank control, a solvent (acetone) control and a total of 9 concentrations ranging from 0.01 to 100 mg moxidectin / kg dung fresh weight were tested. As the dry matter content of the dung used was determined as 15.125%, these numbers were equivalent to 0.066 – 661.1 mg moxidectin / kg dung dry weight. No residue analysis was performed. Dung used in all tests was originally collected fresh from cattle in the field that had not been treated with parasitocides for at least three months, and had been kept frozen at -20 °C for at least 4 weeks before use.

All flies used were originally caught wild and propagated for multiple generations in our laboratory in Zürich. Most species stemmed from around Zürich,

Switzerland, except *Sepsis monostigma* (a subtropical species from China) and *S. punctum* (collected in Berlin, Germany); *Musca autumnalis* was provided by the Department of Entomology, University of Minnesota, Saint Paul, MN, USA.

The experimental units were plastic containers depending on the size of the species filled with a set amount of test dung necessary for development of the larvae (see Römbke et al., 2009, 2010). For the larger *Scathophaga* and *Musca* species we used at least > 3 g per larva in a capped plastic vessel, and for the smaller *Sepsis* species > 0.5 g dung per larva in 22 x 44 x 6 mm³ plastic dishes positioned into a capped 50 ml glass tube. There were 5 replicates per concentration. Typically 10 – 15 eggs (*Scathophaga* and *Musca spp.*) or newly hatched larvae (*Sepsis spp.*) from several holding containers and/or mothers were counted into each experimental vessel. The experimental containers were then incubated in a climate chamber at 21 °C. Emerging flies were collected daily from the containers.

The total number of adult flies (of both sexes) emerging from each container was counted to compute the overall proportion of surviving flies. Sub-lethal effects were additionally assessed by scoring the total egg-to-adult development times and body sizes of all emerged flies. For the sepsids we used head width and for the larger scathophagids and muscids fresh body mass. The sexes typically differ in these parameters, so data for males and females were taken separately. Growth rates could then be calculated simply as body size / development time.

As for binary data sigmoid relationships are expected, moxidectin concentrations causing 50% mortality (LC50) were estimated using probit analysis of logit-transformed emergence proportions against log₁₀(moxidectin concentration), separately for each species. Analogous linear regressions were employed to assess the effect of log₁₀ (moxidectin concentration) on development time, body size and

growth rate (untransformed raw values in all cases). (Acetone control was set to 0.005 moxidectin equivalents and blank control to 0.004 for purposes of analysis, because otherwise all zero concentration values would have been excluded automatically.) A test was considered valid only if larva-to-adult survival in the combined blank and acetone control treatments exceeded 50%.

The ivermectin tests, conducted in our Zurich laboratory between 2008 and 2010, generally followed the same protocol as for moxidectin (Blanckenhorn et al., submitted). They were performed using technical ivermectin (CAS-No. 70288-86-7) with a purity of 94% ivermectin B1a and 2.8% ivermectin B1b (supplied by Paul Cooper, Merial, Atlanta, GA, USA). So far unpublished data on effects of ivermectin on Swiss *Musca domestica* and *Scathophaga suilla* exactly followed the methodology described in Römcke et al. (2010, 2009).

2. Results

Estimated Lethal Effect Concentrations LC₅₀ (at which 50% of the flies died) in terms of fresh dung and dry dung matter, with their (asymmetric) 95% confidence intervals (CI), varied substantially among fly species in response to moxidectin exposure (Table 1). *Sepsis neocynipsea* showed the lowest (0.012 mg / kg fresh dung) and the house fly *Musca domestica* (0.140 mg / kg fresh dung) the highest LC₅₀ threshold, a difference of more than one order of magnitude. Fig. 3a shows exemplary data for *Sepsis monostigma*.

TABLE 1

FIGURE 3a-d

Regarding the sub-lethal effects, 10 of 11 species showed a positive linear relationship between development time and log₁₀ (moxidectin concentration) (both

sexes combined; two-tailed binomial test: $P = 0.011$), of which 6 were individually significant (Table 1). Exemplary data for *Sepsis monostigma* are displayed in Fig. 3b. Similarly, all 11 species showed a negative linear relationship between body size and \log_{10} (moxidectin concentration), 8 being significant (Table 1; Fig. 3c). When combining both effects in terms of growth rate (= body size / development time), again all 11 species showed a negative relationship, 9 being significant (Table 1; Fig. 3d). Thus, a (sub-lethal) reduction of juvenile growth by moxidectin universally occurred in all fly species.

The two new species tested with ivermectin differed considerably in sensitivity from to their previously tested congeners (Römbke et al. 2010, 2009; Table 2). The LC50 value in the test with *M. domestica* was about 5 times higher than that determined for the standard species *M. autumnalis* (24.7 vs. 4.7 $\mu\text{g/kg}$). In contrast, *Scathophaga suilla* was about 2.3 times more sensitive than the well-known test species *S. stercoraria* (8.8 vs. 20.9 $\mu\text{g/kg}$).

TABLE 2

Comparing the moxidectin data obtained here with the corresponding data for the same 11 species in response to ivermectin (published in Römbke et al. 2010, 2009; Blanckenhorn et al, submitted; and those two described in this paper), a strongly positive correlation among species of $r = 0.96$ was obtained for the LC50 thresholds (Fig. 4a). Sub-lethal responses were correlated for development time (Fig. 4b) and growth rate (Fig. 4d) but not body size (Fig. 4c; note the missing of the ivermectin estimates for *Musca autumnalis*: Table 2).

FIGURE 4a-d

3. Discussion

Standardized laboratory toxicological tests as developed for the yellow dung fly *Scathophaga stercoraria* and the face fly *Musca autumnalis* (Römbke et al., 2010, 2009) in response to ivermectin work well for other closely related *Scathophaga* and *Musca* species as well as various sepsid species. Sensitivities of a total of 11 fly species to moxidectin vary by about one order of magnitude, from LC50 = 0.012 mg / kg fresh dung for *Sepsis neocynipsea* to 0.140 mg / kg fresh dung for the house fly *Musca domestica*. Variation in ivermectin LC50 thresholds for these same 11 species was even greater, exceeding two orders of magnitude (Fig. 2a). Note that, in absolute terms, mortality thresholds are about 10-fold higher for moxidectin than for ivermectin (cf. Fig. 2a). (Doherty et al., 1994; Floate et al., 2002, 2001; Wardhaugh et al., 1996). Moxidectin concentrations used here are by no means exceptional in the field (e.g. in Japanese cattle dung the highest concentration three days after application was about 1 mg moxidectin / kg fresh dung (Iwasa et al., 2008)). This large inter-specific variation in responses suggests that any single test species cannot be representative in terms of assessing the toxicity of pharmaceutical residues for the dung community, making choice of appropriate test species difficult. We suggest using several test species, as done here, or, depending on the respective testing strategy (i.e. at which tier such a test is required) even the whole dung community (Floate et al., 2005; Jochmann et al., 2011).

As for ivermectin, our study also revealed sub-lethal effects at lower concentrations of moxidectin in terms of prolonged development and reduced growth, typically resulting in smaller final body sizes in all species (Table 1; Fig. 3; cf. Römbke et al., 2009, but see Römbke et al. 2010). Such sub-lethal effects in dung-breeding insects influence their performance in the natural habitat (Floate et al.,

2005; Jochmann et al., 2011), as smaller flies often have lower mating success in the field (e.g. Jann et al., 2000), and longer development times can be detrimental in time-limited situations when the winter is approaching or when the dung pat is drying (e.g. Blanckenhorn, 1998). It is therefore sensible that the OECD Guideline for dung flies (OECD, 2008) recommends measuring developmental time as well as morphological traits such as body size in addition to mortality (LC50) effects. Such measurements require little additional effort, yet can be sensitive indicators for the presence of toxic effects of residues.

Our salient result is the strong correlation across the 11 tested dung fly species in lethal and sub-lethal responses to moxidectin and ivermectin (Fig. 4). That is, a species relatively sensitive to ivermectin is also relatively sensitive to moxidectin. Somewhat less stringently, this extends to the sub-lethal responses in terms of development and growth retardation, although not to body size reduction. We expected such correlations because the two substances are structurally similar (Fig. 1, 2), belonging to two related classes of parasitocides (avermectins and milbemycins). Furthermore, both substances have a comparable mode-of-action (Lumaret et al., 2012) in disturbing ion transport through cell walls by binding to ion channels. Therefore correlated sensitivities of dung organisms to these two substances, and probably also to other avermectins, are not surprising. Probably all avermectins and milbemycins perturb molting by disturbing ion channel transport, although this remains to be verified. According to the most recent phylogenetic hypothesis largely supported by molecular data, the roundworms (Nematoda; in fact, all the Nematoda, which additionally include the parasitic horsehair worms = Nematomorpha) cluster together with the arthropods as Ecdysozoa (moulting animals). The old classification of arthropods with the segmented worms (Annelida)

as Articulata (segmented animals) is now outdated. While avermectins were intended to primarily target parasitic Nematoda, they also disturb moulting of arthropods as a side effect. This also explains why flatworms (Platyzoa) and tapeworms (Cestoda), two other prominent parasitic worm groups, are perhaps not affected by avermectins: they do not belong to the Ecdysozoa and do not moult. In fact, one may argue that any pharmaceutical that kills parasites by perturbing the moulting process is too unspecific, as the by far largest group of higher animals, the arthropods, will be inadvertently affected, which include many beneficial insects such as dung decomposing flies and beetles. Most interesting in the context here would be comparisons with a parasiticide that features an entirely different mode of action.

In conclusion, at this point in time a number of dung fly species have been toxicologically tested with ivermectin using the same protocol (Römbke et al., 2010, 2009; Blanckenhorn et al., submitted). This study adds to the literature by testing the same dung flies also with moxidectin, in general finding responses well correlated with those for ivermectin. All fly species proved suitable for toxicological testing, which consequently can be considered established and practical, and might consequently be added to the relevant OECD guidelines.

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- 345

Figure Captions

Figure 1: Structural formulae of (a) ivermectin and (b) moxidectin.

Figure 2: Exemplary plots for the sub-tropical Chinese species *Sepsis latiforceps* (all \pm SE): (a) proportion of adult flies (p) emerged for both sexes combined, and sex-specific (males denoted by squares and females by circles) (b) development times, (c) body size (head width), and (d) growth rates as a function of moxidectin concentration plus blank water (W) and acetone (A) controls. Concentrations > 3.16 mg moxidectin / kg fresh dung were tested but resulted in total mortality and are therefore not displayed.

Figure 3: Correlation between the responses to moxidectin and ivermectin for 11 dung fly species in (a) lethal threshold sensitivity (LC50), (b) development time, (c) body size, and (d) growth rate (cf. data in Table 1).

Table Caption

Table 1: Proportion of flies (p) emerged from the control treatments (water, acetone) for all 11 test species, plus the lethal concentration (LC50) of moxidectin (top) and ivermectin (bottom) at which 50% of the flies died, with their (asymmetric) 95% confidence limits in terms of fresh and dry dung. The last three columns give the correlation coefficient, for both sexes combined, between the life history trait and \log_{10} (moxidectin concentration). Significant correlations are in bold.

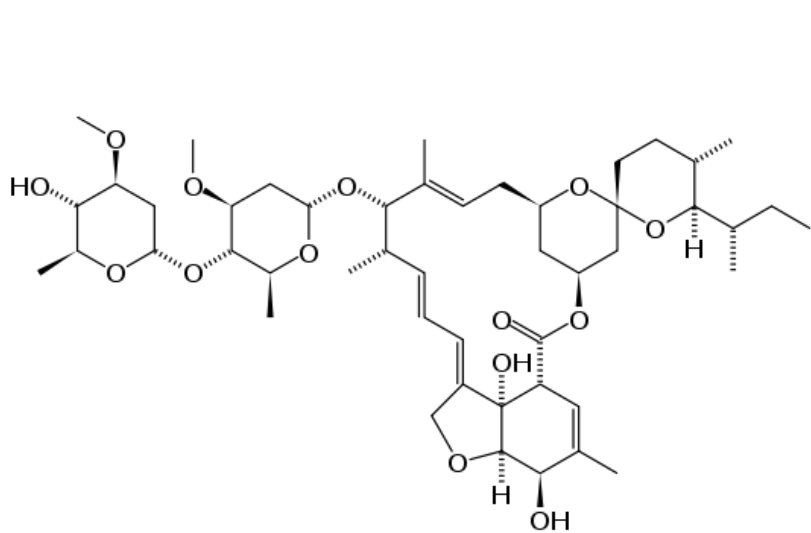
Table 1: Proportion of flies emerged from the control treatments (water, acetone) for all 11 test species, plus the lethal concentration (LC50) of moxidectin (top) and ivermectin (bottom) at which 50

Moxidectin			p(emerged)	Wet dung			Dry dung			r		
Family	Genus	Species		LC50 (µg / kg)	CI95%l	CI95%h	LC50 (mg / kg)	CI95%l	CI95%h	Development time	Body size	Growth rate
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>cynipsea</i>	0.794	19.962	14.532	27.296	131.982	96.076	180.472	0.286	-0.324	-0.370
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>duplicata</i>	0.505	15.000	10.000	22.000	99.174	66.116	145.455	0.122	-0.143	-0.167
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>fulgens</i>	0.762	39.199	24.691	61.520	259.169	163.246	406.741	0.658	-0.564	-0.724
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>latiforceps</i>	0.808	92.141	52.253	162.419	609.199	345.472	1073.845	0.461	-0.490	-0.532
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>neocynipsea</i>	0.690	11.804	7.253	18.501	78.045	47.951	122.318	0.262	-0.674	-0.616
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>orthocnemis</i>	0.740	24.062	15.247	37.081	159.085	100.805	245.162	0.548	-0.345	-0.586
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>punctum</i>	0.642	26.159	12.895	49.236	172.950	85.258	325.528	0.671	-0.161	-0.533
Scathophagidae	<i>Scathophaga</i>	<i>stercoraria</i>	0.800	121.000	93.000	182.000	800.000	614.876	1203.306	0.603	-0.411	-0.730
Scathophagidae	<i>Scathophaga</i>	<i>suilla</i>	0.852	88.411	59.568	130.868	584.533	393.838	865.244	-0.137	-0.670	-0.646
Muscidae	<i>Musca</i>	<i>autumnalis</i>	0.630	70.405	26.719	165.909	465.486	176.651	1096.922	0.043	-0.188	-0.163
Muscidae	<i>Musca</i>	<i>domestica</i>	0.536	139.528	19.757	834.195	922.497	130.624	5515.340	0.380	-0.353	-0.379

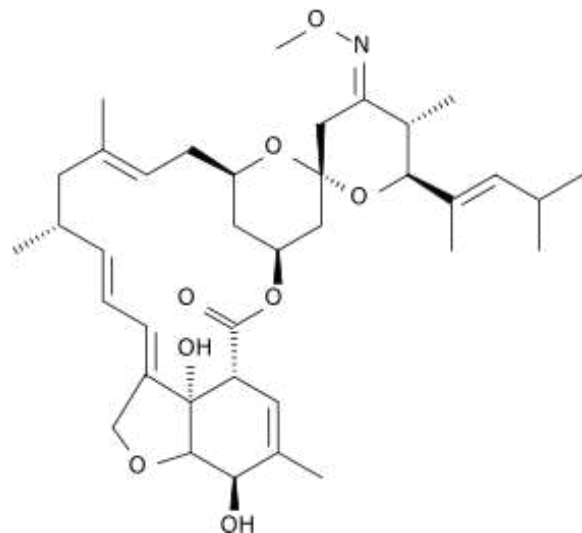
Ivermectin			p(emerged)	Wet dung			Dry dung			r			
Family	Genus	Species		LC50 (µg / kg)	CI95%l	CI95%h	LC50 (mg / kg)	CI95%l	CI95%h	Development time	Body size	Growth rate	
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>cynipsea</i>	0.820	0.491	0.338	0.742	3.500	2.409	5.289	-0.075	-0.154	-0.136	Blanckenhorn et al., 2012
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>duplicata</i>	0.533	0.090	0.052	0.131	0.641	0.371	0.934	0.109	0.184	-0.013	Blanckenhorn et al., 2012
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>fulgens</i>	0.880	5.567	3.230	11.006	39.679	23.022	78.446	0.588	-0.214	-0.528	Blanckenhorn et al., 2012
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>latiforceps</i>	0.845	11.438	5.166	33.596	81.525	36.821	239.458	0.343	-0.438	-0.459	Blanckenhorn et al., 2012
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>neocynipsea</i>	0.703	0.232	0.190	0.286	1.654	1.354	2.038	0.173	0.008	-0.089	Blanckenhorn et al., 2012
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>orthocnemis</i>	0.737	1.090	0.694	1.739	7.769	4.947	12.395	0.474	-0.196	-0.443	Blanckenhorn et al., 2012
Sepsidae	<i>Sepsis</i>	<i>punctum</i>	0.794	1.995	1.216	3.505	14.220	8.667	24.982	0.415	-0.492	-0.517	Blanckenhorn et al., 2012
Scathophagidae	<i>Scathophaga</i>	<i>stercoraria</i>	0.744	20.900	10.900	27.500	148.967	77.691	196.009	0.570	-0.372	-0.618	Roembke et al., 2009
Scathophagidae	<i>Scathophaga</i>	<i>suilla</i>	0.714	8.844	5.297	15.782	63.036	37.755	112.488	0.201	-0.429	-0.518	this study
Muscidae	<i>Musca</i>	<i>autumnalis</i>	0.601	4.650	1.700	10.900	33.143	12.117	77.691	-0.075			Roembke et al., 2010
Muscidae	<i>Musca</i>	<i>domestica</i>	0.542	24.719	9.176	102.322	176.187	65.403	729.309	0.646	0.134	-0.034	this study

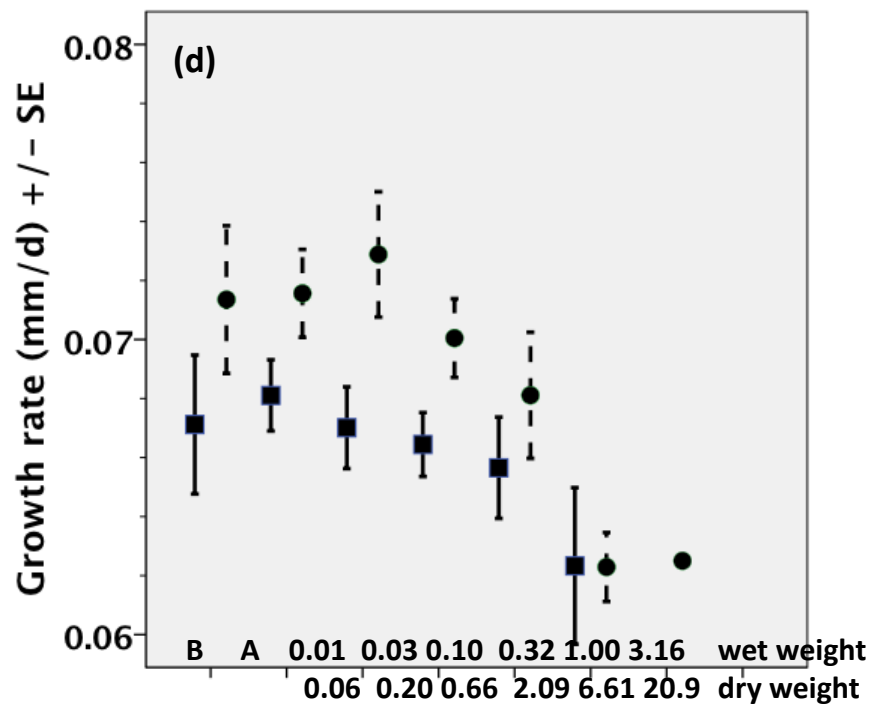
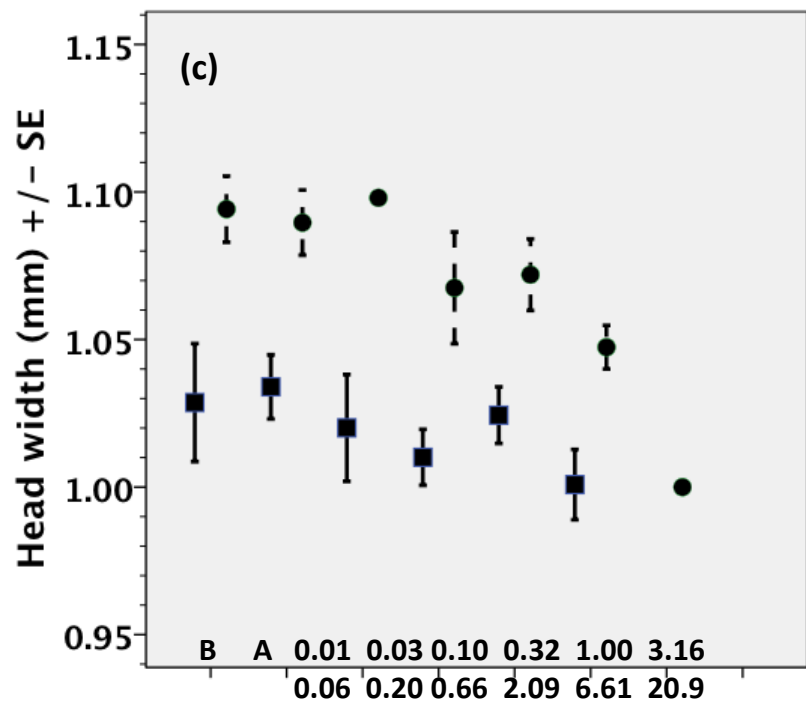
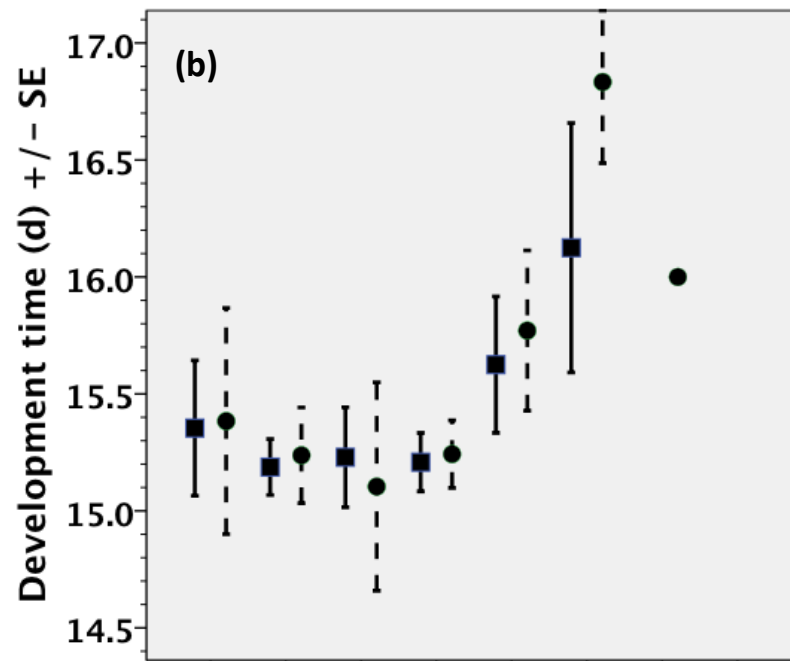
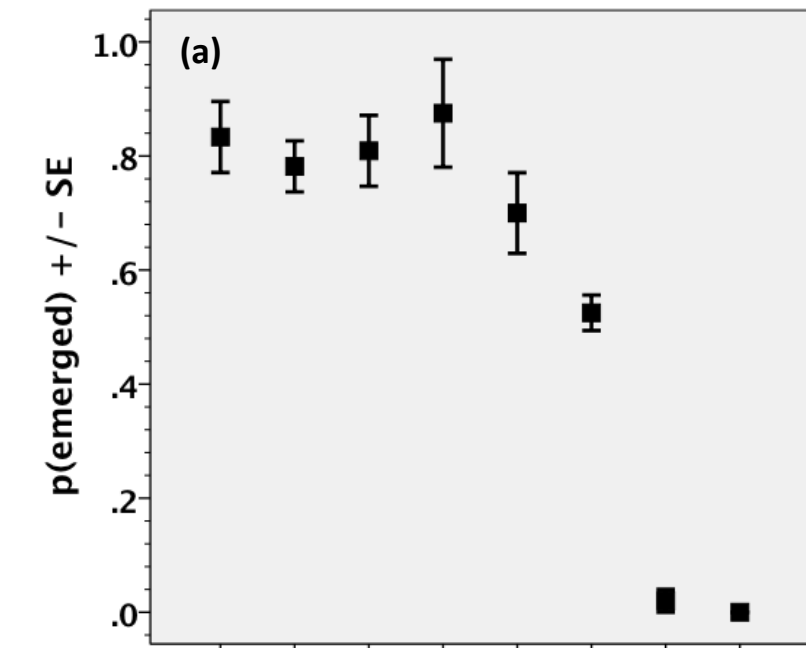
Figures1-3

(a) Ivermectin



(b) Moxidectin





Moxidectin concentration (mg / kg dung)

